UNIVERSITI TUNKU ABDUL RAHMAN

Department of Mathematics and Actuarial Science

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1 The Black-Scholes Formula

1.1 Binary Options

Consider a **cash or nothing call**, which pays 1 at time T if S(T) > K and nothing otherwise. Thus, the payoff function is

Recall that under the true measure,

$$E[I(S(T) > K)|S(t)] = P(S(T) > K|S(t)) = N(\hat{d}_2)$$
 where

$$\hat{d}_2 = \frac{\ln[S(t)/K] + (\alpha - \delta - \sigma^2/2)(T - t)}{\sigma\sqrt{T - t}}$$

To price a cash or nothing option, we use the risk-neutral measure. Replacing α with r, and let

$$d_2 = \frac{\ln[S(t)/K] + (r - \delta - \sigma^2/2)(T - t)}{\sigma\sqrt{T - t}},$$

the expected payoff under risk-neutral measure is given by

$$E^*[I(S(T) > K|S(t)] = N(d_2)$$

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and the time t price of the option is

$$F_{t,T}^{P}[I(S(T) > K] = e^{-r(T-t)}N(d_2)$$

Similarly, under the **cash or nothing put**, the payoff function is

and under the true measure,

$$E[I(S(T) < K)|S(t)] = P(S(T) < K|S(t)) = N(-\hat{d}_2)$$

Under the risk-neutral measure

$$E^*[I(S(T) < K|S(t)] = N(-d_2)$$

and the time t price of the put option is

$$F_{t,T}^P[I(S(T) < K] = e^{-r(T-t)}N(-d_2)$$

Next, we consider an **asset or nothing call**, which pays S(t) at time T if S(T) > K and nothing otherwise. Thus, the payoff function is

Recall that under the true measure,

$$E[S(T)I(S(T) > K)|S(t)] = E[S(T)|S(t)]N(\hat{d}_1)$$

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where

$$\hat{d}_1 = \frac{\ln[S(t)/K] + (\alpha - \delta + \sigma^2/2)(T - t)}{\sigma\sqrt{T - t}}$$

To price the option, the risk-neutral measure must be used. Thus, we replace α with r and let

$$d_1 = \frac{\ln[S(t)/K] + (r - \delta + \sigma^2/2)(T - t)}{\sigma\sqrt{T - t}},$$

the expected payoff under the risk-neutral measure can be expressed as

$$E^*[S(T)I(S(T) > K))|S(t)] = E^*[S(T)|S(t)]N(d_1).$$

As a result, the time t price of the option is

$$\begin{split} F_{t,T}^P[S(T)I(S(T) > K)] \\ &= e^{-r(T-t)}S(t)e^{(r-\delta)(T-t)}N(d_1) \\ &= S(t)e^{-\delta(T-t)}N(d_1). \end{split}$$

For **asset or nothing put**, which pays S(t) at time T if S(T) < K and nothing otherwise, the time t price of this option is

$$F_{t,T}^{P}[S(T)I(S(T) < K] = S(t)e^{-\delta(T-t)}N(-d_1).$$

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The Binary options are summarized as follows:

Binary Option	Payoff at Maturity	Time-t Price
Cash-or-nothing call	I(S(T) > K)	$e^{-r(T-t)}N(d_2)$
Cash-or-nothing put	I(S(T) < K)	$e^{-r(T-t)}N(-d_2)$
Asset-or-nothing call		$S(t)e^{-\delta(T-t)}N(d_1)$
Asset-or-nothing put	S(T)I(S(T) < K)	$S(t)e^{-\delta(T-t)}N(-d_1)$

Notes:

- The time-t prices are of the form $F_{t,T}^P(S)N(\pm d_1)$ or $F_{t,T}^P(K)N(\pm d_2)$.
- $\pm d_1$ is used for asset-or-nothing options, and $\pm d_2$ is used for cash-or-nothing options.
- Negative sign is attached to d_1 or d_2 for put options.

Example 1.

You are given:

- A nondividend paying stock has a current price of 100.
- The volatility of the stock is 25%.
- The continuous compunded risk free interest rate is 4%.
- (a) Calculate the price of a 1-year 100-strike cashor-nothing call.

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(b) Calculate the price of a 1-year 100-strike assetor-nothing call.

Example 2.

Consider a stock that follows a geometric Brownian motion. You are given:

- The current stock price is 100.
- The dividend yield is 1%.
- The stock volatility is 0.20.
- The continuously compounded risk-free interest rate is 4%.

Calculate the price of the following options, which all mature at T=0.5 and have strike of K=90:

(a) A cash-or-nothing put. 0.213

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(b) An Asset-or-nothing put. 17.79

1.2 The Black-Scholes Formula

The payoff of a European call option on a stock, $[S(T)-K]_+$ can be decomposed into the payoff of cash-or-nothing and asset or-nothing call, i.e.,

$$\begin{split} [S(T) - K]_+ &= [S(T) - K]I(S(T) > K) \\ &= S(T)I(S(T) > K) - KI(S(T) > K) \end{split}$$

Thus, the Black-Scholes formula for European call options is

$$c[S(t), K] = S(t)e^{-\delta(T-t)}N(d_1) - Ke^{-r(T-t)}N(d_2)$$

where
$$d_1 = \frac{\ln[S(t)/K] + (r - \delta + \sigma^2/2)(T - t)}{\sigma\sqrt{T - t}}, \text{ and } d_2 = d_1 - \sigma\sqrt{T - t}.$$

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Similarly, the payoff of a European put option on a stock, $[K-S(T)]_+$ can be decomposed into the payoff of cash-or-nothing and asset or-nothing call, i.e.,

$$\begin{split} [K - S(T)]_+ &= [K - S(T)]I(S(T) < K) \\ &= KI(S(T) < K) - S(T)I(S(T) < K) \end{split}$$

Thus, the Black-scholes formula for European call options is

$$p[S(t),K] = Ke^{-r(T-t)}N(-d_2) - S(t)e^{-\delta(T-t)}N(-d_1)$$

Example 3 (T02Q1).

You are considering the purchase of a 3-month European call option on a stock. You are given the following information:

- The strike price is 77.
- The current stock price is 79.
- \bullet The annual risk-free interest rate is 11% compounded continuously.
- The stock pays continuous dividend proportional to its price at a rate of 4%.
- The annual volatility of the stock is 36%.
- The stock follows the Black-Scholes framework.

Calculate the price of the option.

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Example 4 (T02Q2).

You are considering the purchase of a three-month European put option on a nondividend paying stock. You are given the following information:

- The strike price is 58.
- The current stock price is 63.
- The annual risk-free interest rate is 14% compounded continuously.
- The annual volatility of the stock is 30%.
- The stock follows the Black-Scholes framework.

Calculate the price of the option.

Prepaid Forward Version of the Black-Scholes Formula

Recall that $F_{t,T}^P(S)$ is the time-t prepaid forward price of the stock for delivery at time T. Similarly, $F_{t,T}^P(K)$ is the time-t prepaid forward price to delivery K dollars at time T. Thus,

$$c(S(t), K, T) = F_{t,T}^{P}(S)N(d_1) - F_{t,T}^{P}(K)N(d_2)$$
 and

$$p(S(t), K, T) = F_{t,T}^{P}(K)N(-d_2) - F_{t,T}^{P}(S)N(-d_1)$$
 where

$$d_1 = \frac{\ln[F_{t,T}^P(S)/F_{t,T}^P(K)] + 0.5\sigma^2(T-t)}{\sigma\sqrt{T-t}}$$

and

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$$d_2 = \frac{\ln[F_{t,T}^P(S)/F_{t,T}^P(K)] - 0.5\sigma^2(T - t)}{\sigma\sqrt{T - t}} = d_1 - \sigma\sqrt{T}$$

By replacing $F_{t,T}^P(S)$ accordingly, we can use the prepaid forward version of Black-Scholes formula for pricing options on other assets.

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Options on stocks with discrete dividends

In this case,

$$F_{T,t}^{P}(S) = S_t - PV_{t,T}(Div)$$

where $PV_{t,T}(Div)$ is the present value of the (Discrete) dividends payable over the life of the option.

Example 5 (T02Q3).

For a 1-year European call option on a stock:

- The strike price is 76.
- The stock's current price is 81.
- The continuously compounded risk-free interest rate is 0.07.
- The stock pays a dividend of 3 every 3 months, starting immediately after the call option is written. The dividend at the end of one year is paid before the option may be exercised.
- The annual volatility of a prepaid forward on the stock is 0.31.

The stock follows the Black-Scholes framework.

Calculate the price of the option.

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• Options on Currencies

For a currency option, suppose a foreign currency has a time-t exchange rate of x(t) units of domestic currency per unit of foreign currency. If the foreign risk-free interest rate is r_f . The prepaid forward price is

$$F_{t,T}^{P}(x) = x(t)e^{-r_f(T-t)}.$$

Since

$$\ln F_{t,T}^P(x) = \ln x(t) - r_f(T-t)$$

and

$$\ln F_{t,T}^{P} K = \ln K e^{-r(T-t)} = \ln K - r(T-t)$$

Thus,

$$\begin{split} d_1 &= \frac{\ln[F_{t,T}^P(x)/F_{t,T}^P(K)] + 0.5\sigma^2(T-t)}{\sigma\sqrt{T-t}} \\ &= \frac{\ln(x(t)/K + (r-rf + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2)(T-t)}{\sigma\sqrt{T-t}} \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} c(S(t),K) &= F_{t,T}^P(x)N(d_1) - F_{t,T}^P(K)N(d_2) \\ p(S(t),K) &= F_{t,T}^P(K)N(-d_2) - F_{t,T}^P(x)N(-d_1) \end{split}$$

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Example 6 (T02Q4).

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Suppose that the spot exchange rate is $1.3/\pounds$. The exchange rate has a volatility of 0.25. Assume that the US dollar intrest rate is 0.052 and and the pounds-denominated intrest rate is 0.029. Calculate the Black-Scholes price (in US) of a call option to buy $100\pounds$ with 108.33 USD 6 months from now.

• Options on Future

For Futures,

$$F_{T,t}^P(F) = F(t)e^{-r(T-t)}$$

and

$$F_{T,t}^{P}(K) = Ke^{-r(T-t)}$$

Thus

$$\begin{split} d_1 &= \frac{\ln[F_{t,T}^P(S)/F_{t,T}^P(K)] + 0.5\sigma^2(T-t)}{\sigma\sqrt{T-t}} \\ &= \frac{\ln(F(t)/K + (\frac{1}{2}\sigma^2)(T-t)}{\sigma\sqrt{T-t}} \\ c(F(t),K) &= F_{t,T}^P(F)N(d_1) - F_{t,T}^P(K)N(d_2) \\ p(F(t),K) &= F_{t,T}^P(K)N(-d_2) - F_{t,T}^P(F)N(-d_1) \end{split}$$

Example 7 (T02Q5).

Suppose that 6-month futures price for a certain stock is 48. The futures prices follows a geometric Brownian motion and has a volatility of 0.31. Consider a European call option on the future contract. The option expires 6 months from now and has a strike price of 48. Assume that the risk-free interest rate is 0.03, calculate the price of the option.

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Example 8 (T02Q6).

Let S(t) denote the price at time-t of a stock that pays no dividends. The Black-Scholes framework holds. Consider a European call option with exercise date T, T>0, and exercise price $S(0)e^{rT}$, where r is the continuously compounded risk-free interest rate. You are given:

- S(0) = 260
- T = 11
- $V[\ln S(t)] = 0.35t, t > 0.$

Determine the price of the call option.

Example 9 (T02Q7).

You are given:

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• The time-t price of a stock, S(t), where t is measured in years, follows the risk-neutral process

$$d(\ln S(t)) = 0.039dt + 0.25d\tilde{Z}(t)$$

where $\tilde{Z}(t)$ is a standard Brownian motion is the risk-neutral measure.

- S(0) = 8.9.
- \bullet The continuously compounded risk-free interest rate is 0.07.

An option pays $\max(0, 843 - S(1)^3)$ at the end of one year. Calculate the value of the option.

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1.3 Greek Letters and Elasticity

In a Black-Scholes framework, the price of any derivative security, V(S,t), depends on the following six factors:

Stock	Option	Environment
S	t	r
σ	K	
δ		

One way to quantify the risk of a derivative is to measure how sensitive V(S,t) is when S or t changes.

• **Delta** (Δ) measures the change in the price of a derivative when the stock price increase by \$1.

$$\Delta = \frac{\partial V}{\partial S}$$

A large delta $\Rightarrow V$ is very sensitive to price.

Delta for call and put are:

$$\Delta_{\text{call}} = e^{-\delta(T-t)} N(d_1)$$

$$\Delta_{\text{put}} = -e^{-\delta(T-t)} N(-d_1)$$

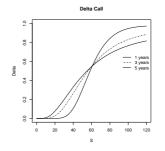
From put-call parity,

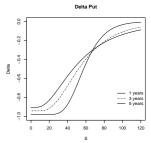
$$C(S,K) - P(S,K) = Se^{-\delta(T-t)} - Ke^{-r(T-t)}.$$

Differentiating with respect to S, we have

$$\Delta_{\text{call}} - \Delta_{\text{put}} = e^{-\delta(T-t)}$$

Properties of Δ





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 $K = 60; r = 0.1, \sigma = 0.3, \delta = 0.02$ Notes:

- Calls Δ is positive and bounded by 0 and $e^{-\delta(T-t)}$.
- Puts Δ is negative and bounded by $-e^{-\delta(T-t)}$, and 0.
- $-\Delta$ calls $\to 0$ for low S and $\to e^{\delta(T-t)}$ for high S .
- $-\Delta$ puts $\to 0$ for high S ans $\to -e^{\delta(T-t)}$ for low S.

Example 10.

Assume the Black-Scholes framework. Compute the time-t delta for a cash-or-nothing call.

Example 11 (T02Q8).

For a stock that follows a geometric Brownian motion, you are given that

- The current stock price is 26.
- The stock pays dividends continuously at a rate proportional to its price. The dividend yield is 8%.
- The expected stock price after 1 year is 30.82.
- The variance of the stock price after 1 year is 158.64.
- The delta of a 1-year at-the-money European put option is -0.352723.

Find the price of the put option.

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• **Gamma**(Γ) measures the change in delta when the stock price increases by \$1.

$$\Gamma = \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial S^2} = \frac{\partial \Delta}{\partial S}$$

Gamma for call and put are:

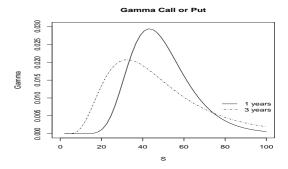
$$\Gamma = \frac{e^{-\delta(T-t)}\phi(d_1)}{S\sigma\sqrt{T-t}}$$

where
$$\phi(d_1) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-d_1^2/2}$$

Differentiating both sides of the put call parity equation with respect to S, we get

$$\Gamma_{call} - \Gamma_{put} = 0$$

Properties of Γ



Notes:

- $-\Gamma_{\text{call}} = \Gamma_{\text{put}}$ for same K and T.
- $-\Gamma$ is positive for long position of calls and puts.
- $-\Gamma \to 0$ when S is very low or very high.

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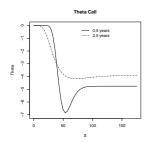
• Theta (θ) measures the change in price of a derivative when the is a decrease in the time to expiration t.

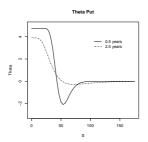
$$\theta = \frac{\partial V}{\partial t}$$

$$\theta_{\text{Call}} = S\delta e^{-\delta(T-t)}N(d_1) - Kre^{-r(T-t)}N(d_2) - \frac{S\sigma e^{-\delta(T-t)}\phi(d_1)}{2\sqrt{T-t}})$$

$$\theta_{\text{Put}} = Kre^{-r(T-t)}N(-d_2) - S\delta e^{-\delta(T-t)}N(-d_1) - \frac{S\sigma e^{-\delta(T-t)}\phi(d_1)}{2\sqrt{T-t}})$$

Properties of Θ





$$r = 0.1, \, \sigma = 0.3, \, K = 50, \, \delta = 0$$

Notes:

- The value of θ can be positive or negative. It is usually negative because call and put prices tend to drop as time passes.
- If time to expiration is measured in years, theta will be the annualized change in the option value. To obtain a per-day theta, divide by 365.

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Example 12 (T02Q9).

For a 1-month European put option, you are given:

- (i) Theta is -0.0151 per day.
- (ii) The underlying stock price is 54.
- (iii) The strike price is 51.0.

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- (iv) The stock's continuous dividend rate is 0.02.
- (v) The continuously compounded risk-free annual interest rate is 0.067.

Calculate theta per day for a 1-month European call option on the same stock with the same strike price.

• Relation Between Delta, Gamma and Theta

Recall the Black-Scholes equation

$$V_t + (r - \delta)SV_S + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 S^2 V_{SS} = rV$$

As

$$V_t = \frac{\partial V}{\partial t} = \theta;$$
$$V_S = \frac{\partial V}{\partial S} = \Delta$$

and

$$V_{SS} = \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial S^2} = \Gamma,$$

we have

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$$\theta + (r - \delta)S\Delta + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2S^2\Gamma = rV$$

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 Vega (v) measures the change in price of a derivative when there is an increase in volatility.

$$\boxed{v = \frac{\partial V}{\partial \sigma}}$$

$$\boxed{v_{\text{Call}} = Se^{-\delta(T-t)}\sqrt{T-t}\phi(d_1) = v_{\text{Put}}}$$

Properties of Vegas

- Vegas are positive for both long calls and long puts.
- Vegas for calls and puts with the same strike and time to expiration are the same.
- Vega tends to be (but not always) greater for at-the-money options, and greater for options with longer times to expiration.
- The shape of vega is asymmetric hump, peak similar to Γ .
- It is common to report vega as the change in option price per percentage point change in volatility. This requires dividing the vega formula above by 100.

• Psi (ψ) measures the change in price of a derivative when there is an increase in the continuously dividend yield.

$$\psi = \frac{\partial V}{\partial \delta}$$

$$\psi_{\text{Call}} = -(T - t)Se^{-\delta(T - t)}N(d_1)$$

$$\psi_{\text{Put}} = (T - t)Se^{-\delta(T - t)}N(-d_1)$$

Properties of Psi

- Psi is negative for calls and positive for puts.
- A higher dividend yield would lower the prepaid forward price of the stock but not the present value of K, when the dividend yield increases, the price of a European call, which has a payoff of $[S(T)-K]_+$, will fall, while the price of a European put, which has a payoff of $[K-S(T)]_+$, will rise.
- The shape of Psi is a decreasing curve (Negative for calls, positive for puts)
- To interpret psi as price change per percentage point change in the dividend yield, divide 100.

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• Rho (ρ) measures the change in price of a derivative when there is an increase in the risk free interest rate.

$$\rho = \frac{\partial V}{\partial r}$$

$$\rho_{\text{Call}} = (T - t)Ke^{-r(T - t)}N(d_2)$$

$$\rho_{\text{Put}} = -(T - t)Ke^{-r(T - t)}N(-d_2)$$

Properties of Rho

- We will use the above formula divided by 100. That is, the change of option value per 1% change in interest rate.
- Rho is positive for calls and negative for puts.
- A higher interest rate would lower the present value of K but not the prepaid forward price of S(T). Therefore, when the present value of K decreases, call prices rise, while put prices fall.
- The shape of Rho is an increasing curve (Positive for calls, negative for puts)

• The sign of the six Greek letters can be summarized as below:

Greek	Call	Put	
δ	+	-	
Γ	+	+	
θ	+or-(Usually -)		
v	+	+	
ψ	ı	+	
ρ	+	-	

• Greek Letters of a Portfolio of Derivatives

Suppose that an investor forms a portfolio with n derivatives written on the same underlying stock S. The investor take a position of w_i units of the i-th derivative, whose price is denoted by V_t . If $w_i > 0$, then it is a long position, and vice versa. The value of the portfolio is given by

$$P = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i V_i.$$

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Hence, the delta of the portfolio is

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial S} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i \frac{\partial V_i}{\partial S} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i \Delta_i$$

Similarly,

$$\frac{\partial^{2}P}{\partial S^{2}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i} \Gamma_{i}$$

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial t} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i} \theta_{i}$$

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial r} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i} v_{i}$$

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial \delta} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i} \psi_{i}$$

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial \sigma} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i} \rho_{i}$$

Example 13.

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A stock has a continuously compounded dividend yield of 0.06. Delta for a 6-month European put option on the stock is -0.79. Determine delta for a 6-month European call option on the stock with the same strike price. 0.1804

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Example 14.

Assume the Black-Scholes framework. You are given that:

- A nondividend paying stock has a current price of 10 and a volatility of 40%.
- A T-year K-strike European put option on S has a price of 2.4954 and a theta of -0.3903.
- A *T*-year *K*-strike European call option written on *S* has a delta of 0.4480 and a gamma of 0.09889.

Find r the continuously compounded risk-free interest rate. $\boxed{0.05}$

Example 15 (T02Q10).

You are given the following information on two derivatives:

Derivative	Price	Delta	Gamma	Vega
A	1.1553	2.3917	2.373	0.9488
В	0.3403	-0.8427	-0.111	-0.0436

You form derivative C by taking positions on derivative A and B. If derivative C has a zero delta and a gamma of 0.5, calculate its vega.

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theorem. The Delta-Gamma-Theta Approx-

 $V(S(t+h), t+h) \approx V(S(t), t) + \Delta\epsilon + \frac{1}{2}\Gamma\epsilon^2 + \theta h$

where $\epsilon = S(t+h) - S(t)$ and the three Greeks

1.4 The Delta-Gamma-Theta Approximation

Delta, gamma, and theta can be used to approximate the change of the price of a derivative, V(S,t) when there is a small changes of the price of a stock. By the Taylor's theorem, we have

$$V(S+\epsilon,t) \approx V(S,t) + V_S(S,t)\epsilon + \frac{1}{2}V_{SS}(S,t)\epsilon^2$$

Thus, we have the **Delta-Gamma** Approximation:

$$V(S + \epsilon, t) \approx V(S, t) + \Delta \epsilon + \frac{1}{2} \Gamma \epsilon^2$$

If we drop the gamma term, we have the **delta** approximation:

$$V(S + \epsilon, t) \approx V(S, t) + \Delta \epsilon$$

A more comprehensive description is that the stock price changes from S(t) to S(t+h) when time proceeds from t to t+h. We can model this with a delta-gamma-theta approximation, which derived from the multivariate version of Taylor's

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imation is

are evaluted at S(t) and t.

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Example 16.

Assume the Black-Scholes framework holds. The price of a nondividend paying stock is \$30. The price of a put option on this stock is \$4.00. You are given $\Delta = -0.28$ and $\Gamma = 0.10$. Using the delta-gamma approximation, determine the price of the put option if the stock price changes to \$31.50. $\boxed{3.6925}$

Example 17 (T02Q11).

Let c(S,T,K,r) and p(S,T,K,r) be the prices of call an dput when the stock price is S, the time until expiration is T, the strike price is K, and the continuously compounded risk-free interest rate is r. You are given:

- The stock pays dividends continuously at a rate proportional to its price. The dividend yield is 0.03.
- c(7, 0.5, 8, 0.09) = 0.33799
- $\frac{\partial}{\partial r}|_{r=0.09}c(7, 0.5, 8, r) = 1.1399$

Approximate the value of p(7, 0.5, 8, 0.079).

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1.5 The Mean Return and Volatility of a Derivative

The SDE for V(S(t), t) is

$$\frac{dV(S(t),t)}{V(S(t),t)} = m_V dt + s_V dZ(t)$$

where m_V is the mean return V(S(t), t) and s_V is the volatility of V(S(t), t).

To compute s_V , we use Ito's lemma:

$$dV(S(t),t) = V_t dt + V_S dS + \frac{1}{2} V_{SS} (dS)^2$$

$$= V_t dt + V_S [(\alpha - \delta)S dt + \sigma S dZ(t)]$$

$$+ (\ldots) dt$$

$$= (\ldots) dt + S V_S \sigma dZ(t)$$

As a result,

$$\frac{dV}{V} = (\ldots) dt + \frac{SV_S}{V} \sigma dZ(t).$$

and thus

$$s_V = \frac{S\Delta}{V}\sigma$$

Define

$$\Omega = \frac{S\Delta}{V}$$

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then,

$$s_V = \Omega \sigma$$

Note:

- Depending on the sign of Δ , s_V may be positive or negative. It is customary to report the magnitude of s_V only.
- \bullet Ω is called the elasticity of a derivative.
- Since

$$|s_V| = |\Omega|\sigma$$

- \Rightarrow If $|\Omega| > 1$, then $s_V > \sigma$, and hence the option is riskier than the underlying asset. As a result, elasticity is a measure of leverage.
- Another interpretation of the option is based on the option delta:

$$\Omega = \frac{S}{V} \frac{\partial V}{\partial S} = \frac{\frac{\partial V}{V}}{\frac{\partial S}{S}}$$

which means that the elasticity is the percentage change in the derivative price relative to the percentage change in the stock price.

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Properties of Elasticity of Calls and Puts

- $\Omega \geq 1$ for a call.
- $\Omega \leq 0$ for a put since $\Delta_{\text{put}} \leq 0$.
- $|\Omega|$ is an increasing function of t.
- $|\Omega|$ increases when $S \to K$
- Suppose that an investor forms a portfolio with n derivatives written on the same underlying stock S. the investor takes a position of w_i units of the ith derivative, whose price is denoted by V_i . The price of the portfolio is given by

$$P = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i V_i$$

By definition,

$$\Omega_{\text{portfolio}} = \frac{S}{P} \frac{\partial P}{\partial S} \\
= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{Sw_i}{P} \Delta_i \\
= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\frac{Sw_i}{P}\right) \left(\frac{V_i \Omega_i}{S}\right) \\
= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\frac{w_i V_i}{P}\right) \Omega_i$$

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Thus, the option elasticity of a portfolio is the value weighted average of the option

To obtain m_V , we use the equality of Shape ra-

$$\begin{aligned} & \underset{S_V}{\text{tios}}, \\ & \frac{m_V - r}{s_V} = \frac{\alpha - r}{\sigma} \\ & m_V = \frac{\alpha - r}{\sigma} s_V + r \\ & = \frac{\alpha - r}{\sigma} (\sigma \Omega) + r \\ & = (\alpha - r) \Omega + r \\ & = \Omega \alpha + (1 - \Omega) r \end{aligned}$$

⇒ the instantaneous expected return on a derivative is a weighted average of α and r.

$$m_V = \Omega \alpha + (1 - \Omega)r$$

Example 18 (T02Q12).

Assume the Black-Scholes framework. You are given that

- The current stock price is 28.
- The stock pays dividends continuously at a rate proportional to its price. The dividend yield is 0.033.
- The volatility of the stock is 0.3.
- The continuously compounded risk-free interest rate is 0 144

Calculate the current volatility of a 6-month 29.0-strike European call option on the stock.

Example 19 (T02Q13).

You are given:

• For a stock whose time-t price is S(t), the risk-neutral process is

$$d[\ln S(t)] = 0.023dt + 0.25d\tilde{Z}(t), S(0) = 110.0$$
 where $\tilde{Z}(t)$ is a standard Brownian motion under the risk-neutral measure.

• The true stochastic process is

$$dS(t) = cS(t)dt + 0.25S(t)dZ(t),$$

where Z(t) is a standard Brownian motion under the true probability measure and c is a constant.

• The stock pays dividends continuously at a rate proportional to its price. The dividend yield is 1.2%.

Consider an option that pays 1 one year from now if S(1) < 115.5. If the expected instantaneous return of the option at time-0 is -57.0%, find c.

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Example 20 (T02Q14).

Let S(t) be time-t price of a nondividend-paying stock and C(S(t), t) be the time-t price of a 0.5year at the money European call option written on the stock, when the time-t stock price is S(t). You are given that

• S(0.25) = 50.

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• The true stock price process is

$$dS(t) = 0.22S(t)dt + 0.35S(t)dZ(t)$$

where Z(t) is a standard Brownian motion under the true measure.

• The true stochastic process satisfied by the call option is

$$dC(S(t),t) = a(S(t),t)dt + b(S(t),t)dZ(t)$$
 for some a and b .

• The risk-neutral stochastic process satisfied by the call option is

$$dC(S(t),t) = 0.06C(s(t),t)dt + f(S(t),t)d\tilde{Z}(t)$$

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where f is a function and $\tilde{Z}(t)$ is a standard Brownian motion under the risk-neutral measuare.

Calculate a(50, 0.25).

1.6 Delta-hedging a Portfolio

A market maker is a broker or dealer who sells or buy options. A market maker is not interested in speculating on the market but rather would like to make money through bid-ask spreads. Thus if he sells a call option, he must hedge the investment by buying something that would go up in value if the call goes up in value.

If there are two risky assets X and Y with SDEs

$$\frac{dX(t)}{X(t)} = m_X dt + s_X dZ(t), \quad \frac{dY(t)}{Y(t)} = m_Y dt + s_Y dZ(t)$$

Suppose we have 1 unit of X at time t. To hedge the risk, we purchase $N = -\frac{s_X X(t)}{s_Y Y(t)}$ units of Y and hold a cash position of W = -X(t) - NY(t).

Let X(t) = V(S(t), t) and Y(t) = S(t), then, we purchase

$$N = -\frac{s_V V}{\sigma S} = -\frac{\frac{S\Delta}{V}\sigma V}{\sigma S} = -\Delta$$

shares of S and hold a cash position of

$$W = -V + S\Delta$$
.

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Example 21.

For a nondividend paying stock, you are given that

- S(t) is the time-t stock price.
- S(t) satisfies the SDE:

$$dS(t) = 0.25S(t)dt + 0.45S(t)dZ(t), S(0) = 60$$

• The continuously compounded risk-free interest rate is 10%.

Justin has just sold 100 unit of 9-month 65-strike call option. To hedge the risk, Justin immediately hedges his position by purchasing the hedge portfolio.

(a) Calculate the components in Justin's hedge portfolio at t=0.

- (b) Suppose that the stock price after 1 month is 65, compute the profit and loss of
 - (i) shorting 100 unit call;
 - (ii) Justin's position, assuming that Justin can borrow or lend at the risk-free interest rate.

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Example 22.

You are given that

- S(t) is the time-t stock price.
- S(t) satisfies the SDE:

$$dS(t) = 0.25S(t)dt + 0.45S(t)dZ(t), S(0) = 60$$

- The stocks pays dividend continuously at a rate proportional to its price. The dividend yield is 4%.
- The continuously compounded risk-free interest rate is 10%.

Justin has just bought 100 unit of 9-month 60strike put option. To hedge the risk, Justin immediately hedges his position by purchasing the hedge portfolio.

(a) Calculate the components in Justin's hedge portfolio at t=0.

- (b) Suppose that the stock price after 1 month is 65, compute the profit and loss of
 - (i) owing 100 units of put;
 - (ii) Justin's position, assuming that Justin uses the stock dividend to purchase extra shares, and that Justin can borrow or lend at the risk-free interest rate.

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Example 23 (T02Q15).

Let S(t) be the time-t price of a nondividend paying stock. You are given that S(t) follows the stochastic differential equation

$$dS(t) = 0.08S(t)dt + 0.27d\tilde{Z}(t), S(0) = 3,$$

where $\tilde{Z}(t)$ is a standard Brownian motion under the risk-neutral measure.

A market maker has just written a contingent claim that pays the $S^3(3)$ after 3 years. He then immediately deltahedge his position by trading stocks and cash(W). Calculate W.

Example 24 (T02Q16).

You are given that:

• For a stock whose time—t price is S(t), the risk-neutral process is

$$d[\ln S(t)] = 0.083dt + 0.2d\tilde{Z}(t), S(0) = 22$$

where $\tilde{Z}(t)$ is a standard Brownian motion under the risk-neutral measure.

- The stock pays dividends continuously at a rate proportional to its price. The dividend yield is 1.7%.
- A market-maker has sold 100 6-month 24-strike calls on the stock. He immediately hedges his position by buying shares and risk-free bonds.
 The dividends received are invested by purchasing extra shares.
- The current Black-Scholes price of the call is 0.8968.

After 1 month, when the stock price is 15 and the Black-Scholes price for the call becomes 0.0003,

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the maker-maker rebalances his hedge portfolio by trading shares and risk-free bonds. The makermaker invests or repays dividends by purchasing or shorting extra shares. Compute the 1-month profit.

1.7 Gamma Neutrality

Delta-hedge can only protect the market-maker against small chamges in stock prices. If the gamma of the portfolio is negative, a big change in the stock price will lead to a big hedge loss.

To solve this problem, one can try to make the gamma of the hedge position zero. A portfolio with a zero gamma is called a gamma-neutral position. A position in the underlying asset itself has a zero gamma: $\Gamma = \frac{\partial^2 S}{\partial S} = 0$. Thus, it cannot be used to change the gamma of the portfolio. To adjust the gamma of a portfolio, we must make use of instruments such as options that are not linearly dependent on the underlying asset.

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Example 25 (T02Q17).

You are given:

- A stock has price 45.
- A market-maker writes put option I on the stock with price 2.59, delta -0.45 and gamma 0.06.
- The market-maker delta-gamma-hedges the option with the stock and with put option II having price 4.47, delta -0.58, and gamma 0.05.

Determine the number of shares of stock to buy to implement the hedge.

1.8 Implied Volatility

Implied volatility is a term commonly used by stock analysts. It is the volatility implied by the **market price** of an option. For eaxmple, suppose that the price of a caqll on a nondividend-paying stock is 1.875 when S=21, K=20, r=10%, and T=0.25. the implied volatility is the value of σ that gives C=1.875 when it is substituted into the Black-Scholes formula.

In general, to solve for the implied volatility, we need computer software to solve it. however, under the following situation, we can obtain the volatility:

- 1. At the money stock options with $r = \delta$.
- 2. At the money future option.

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3. The delta of the option is given.

In situation (1) and (2), $d_1 = -d_2 = \frac{\sigma\sqrt{T}}{2}$.

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Example 26 (T02Q18).

Assume the Black-Scholes framework. For a stock, you are given that:

- The current stock price 120.
- The stock pays dividends continuously at a rate proportional to its price. The dividend yield is 2.1%.
- The continuously compounded risk-free interest rate is 2.1%.

The current price of a 3-month 120-strike European call on this stock is 9.0. Calculate the implied volatility of this stock.

Example 27 (T02Q19).

Let Z(t) be a standard Brownian motion under the risk-neutral measure. For a stock, you are given:

- The time-t stock price is S(t).
- The stock price process in the risk-neutral measure is $dS(t) = 0.021S(t)dt + \sigma S(t)dZ(t), \quad S(0) = 100,$ where a is a constant that is less than 0.1922.
- The stock pays dividends continuously at a rate proportional to its price. The dividend yield is 2.5%. The delta of a 2-year 100-strike put option on this stock is

-0.3655. Calculate σ .

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1.9 Historical Volatility

Historical volatility is an estimate of volatility from historical stock prices. To obtain the estimated volatility:

1. Let $u_i = \ln \frac{S_i}{S_{i-1}}$, i = 1, 2, ..., n, be the continuously compounded rate of return (not annualized) for the *i*-th time interval. In the Black-Scholes framework,

$$u_i \sim N[(\alpha - \delta - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2)h, \sigma^2 h].$$

- 2. Compute $\bar{u} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} u_i}{n}$.
- 3. Compute $s_u^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (u_i \bar{u})^2}{n-1}$.
- 4. Since s_u^2 is the estimate of $\sigma^2 h$, thus $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{s_u^2}{h}$.
- 5. Thus, $\hat{\sigma} = \frac{s_u}{\sqrt{h}}$.

Example 28.

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You are to estimate a nondividend-paying stock's annualized volatility using its prices in the past nine months.

Calculate the historical volatility for this stock over the period. $\boxed{0.8265}$

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1.10 Expected Rate of Appreciation

To estimate the expected rate of return α , we use the following equation:

$$\hat{\alpha} = \frac{\bar{u}}{h} + \delta + \frac{\hat{\sigma}^2}{2}.$$

To estimate the expected rate of appreciation, use

$$\hat{\alpha} - \delta$$

Example 29 (T02Q20).

You are given the following historical prices of a nondividend-paying stock:

Week	1	2	3	4	5	6
Stock Price	110	96	93	97	104	103

Let α be the stock's expected rate of return and σ be the stock's volatility. Estimate $\alpha + \sigma$.